SOME NEW BOOKS.

South America in the Last Half Century.

A history of Brazil during the last fifty years is, of course, procurable in Portuguese, and summaries of the records of the other South American republics for the same period have been published in Spanish and also in French. So far as we know, however, no book presenting a comprehensive review of the subject has hitherto appeared in English, and it is, therefore, a pronounced want which has been met in the large octavo volume of nearly 700 pages, entitled *A History of South America*, 1854-1904, by CHARLES EDMOND AKERS (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The author has been for some fourteen years a correspondent of the London *Times* in South America, and he tells us in a preface what, indeed, we are prepared to hear—that the prosecution of journalistic work throughout that continent has brought home to him the need of a concise history of the various South American States since they attained independence from Spanish control. That part of their independent history, however, which is concerned with events preceding the middle of the nineteenth century is here very briefly dealt with, and the bulk of the work is allotted to the story of the last fifty years. It must have been a very difficult task to collect from innumerable sources the information here set forth, and we are happy to say that, so far as we have been able to verify the facts, they are given with creditable accuracy. The author's deductions from these facts are cautious and impartial, and they unquestionably assist us to forecast the future of the countries described.

A characteristic feature of the work is the persistent effort to show how the national character of the people of each South American republic has acquired distinctive traits, the products of local surroundings, modified by foreign immigration and the accompanying influence of forms of civilization other than those of Spanish or Portuguese origin. We shall exemplify the usefulness of this book to journalists by glancing at what the author has to say about such live subjects as the unsettled dispute between Chile and Peru concerning the districts of Tacna and Arica, the Acre controversy between Bolivia and Brazil, the relations between Chile and Argentina, the secession of Panama from Colombia, the troubled state of things in Venezuela, the large and increasing Italian element in the Argentine population, and the important German settlements in Southern Brazil. We shall also direct attention for a moment to the author's concluding chapter, which embodies some general remarks on the actual condition and the prospects of South America from an economical as well as a political point of view. We pass over the chapters which depict the Spanish and Portuguese conquest of the continent, the gradual development of the Latin colonies therein and their tardy, fitful, but eventually successful struggle for liberation. We would merely observe that these chapters are models of condensation.

I.

It is well known that the war between Chile and Peru which was declared on April 5, 1879, resulted in an overwhelming triumph for the former Power. The Treaty of Ancon, signed on Oct. 20, 1883, ceded unconditionally to Chile the coast province of Tarapaca, containing nitrate deposits of great value, and provided that the provinces of Tacna and Arica should remain in the possession of Chile for the term of ten years, to be reckoned from the ratification of the treaty, which took place on May 8, 1884. There was subjoined a stipulation that, when the term should have expired, the inhabitants of the territory provisionally occupied should decide by a plebiscite whether the two provinces should remain definitely under the sovereignty of Chile or revert to Peru, the country in whose favor the decision should be pronounced paying ten millions of silver dollars to the other. This plebiscite should have taken place in 1894, but Peru was then in such an anarchic condition from internal complications that it was impossible to open negotiations for it.

For the last ten years every attempt at a satisfactory agreement has proved abortive. Peru not unnaturally distrusts the intentions of Chile, and believes she is determined to remain in possession of the provinces. The actual situation is that the Peruvian legation has been withdrawn from Santiago and that for the time being no effort is making to bring about an understanding. It will be remembered that Bolivia had taken part in the war on Peru's side; indeed, the pretext for the contest was the Chilean occupation of the Bolivian coast province of Atacama, which lies immediately south of Tarapaca. By the truce between Chile and Bolivia, signed on April 4, 1884, the latter power ceded to the former the coast province of Atacama and agreed that merchandise entered at the port of Arica for consumption in Bolivia should be subject to the duties in force under the Chilean tariff pending the payment of a war indemnity by Bolivia. The truce by which hostilities were terminated was expected to be followed by a formal treaty of peace, but this has not yet been negotiated, and the long standing controversy respecting its terms has now reached an acute stage.

Mr. Akers points out that the outcome of the struggle brought about by the intrigues of Peru in Bolivia, and by Chili's desire to extend her coast territory northward was a complete reversal of the expectations with which South America generally had viewed the approach of the conflict in 1879. "The strength of Chili by land and sea was then unknown, and hardly even suspected, by the two countries which dared her to go to war or lose all the privileges she claimed for Chilean capital and labor in the Atacama district. The outcome of the conflict left Peru in a condition of economic collapse and financial ruin, in regard both to public resources and to private enterprises, and Bolivia, losing her maritime territory, became isolated in the interior of South America. Chile, on her part, enlarged her dominion, and obtained control of districts that offered an immediate rich return to compensate her for her sacrifices, and provided a permanent outlet for capital and industry which assured great additional wealth to her people." She also won recognition as the paramount military and naval Power on the west coast of South America.

II.

In a chapter on Bolivia attention is directed to the two principal factors in the political situation of that republic. The first is the numerical weakness of the white element of the population. It is the office-seeking proclivity of this section of the inhabitants that most frequently leads to disturbances. We should further note that when one or other of the political parties obtains control it is seldom that anything short of actual force can again bring the opposition into power. Practically every election for the Presidency and the National Congress is a farce, and official influence is exercised so unstintedly to assure the return of Government candidates that no peaceable political combination can secure a majority at the polls. Hence a revolutionary outbreak is invariably the product of discontent, and hence, too, the governing element has become an oligarchy, sometimes represented by so-called Conservatives, as was the case before the uprising of 1898, and at others by an equally restricted circle of Liberals, as at present. The second prominent force distinguished by Mr. Akers in the political life of the republic is the Indian and half-caste, or Cholo, population. It appears that so far as regular participation in public affairs is concerned, the Indians and Cholos show no desire to exercise the privileges to which they are entitled under the Constitution; but when any question affecting lands and other property arises care is needed to avert serious disturbances on the part of the colored element. The low standard of intelligence among this portion of the inhabitants does not permit them to discriminate in regard to the legal propriety of measures dealing with landed property. In their eyes, long residence on any section of the national territory constitutes a claim to ownership with which the Government has no right to interfere, and their great numerical superiority often constrains the Government to view this feeling with indulgence. We are told that apart from questions relating to land occupancy, the Bolivian Indians are docile when treated with ordinary justice.

Not only is access to Bolivia difficult and tedious, but even when the country is reached there is everywhere a lack of modern methods of transport. Roads for wheel traffic do not exist, except in very few places, and then only for limited distances; passengers and freight are carried on mule back. It is the difficulty of communication throughout the country that makes its political organization so insecure. A district revolting against the Government can be assured of ample time to organize a rebellion before the authorities are able to send troops thither. Permanent political tranquillity cannot be expected until the problem of transportation between the principal centres of population is solved. It is not generally known that Bolivia has four capitals. The official seat of government alternates between La Paz, Sucre, Oruro and Cochabamba, and the Congress is convoked sometimes at one and sometimes at another of these places, with the result that Government offices have to be moved and archives transferred at great expense and risk. Only a few years ago a mule train conveying important documents and official records was swept away when crossing a swollen ford and a large amount of invaluable Government property was irretrievably lost. Sucre is generally regarded as the political headquarters of the Government, but the Constitution obliges Congress to hold sessions at all of the four places named. While Sucre is central and has a suitable climate, it is so isolated that the journey thither occupies a week by horse or mule from the nearest railway. La Paz is the commercial capital and is fairly easy of access. From time to time the expediency of making it the permanent centre of government is agitated, but hitherto local interests have prevented the change.

In the frontier district known as Acre the possibility of a conflict between Bolivia and Brazil had long been recognized. The majority of the inhabitants are Brazilians, yet, with the exception of an insignificant tract, the territory had been acknowledged to belong to Bolivia by boundary treaties between the two countries. The inhabitants, however, objected to the establishment of Bolivian authority, and this feeling led to the proclamation of Acre as an independent State, a step followed in 1900 by the despatch of troops under Gen. Velesco to overthrow the new republic and install Bolivian officials. Early in 1901 Velesco reported that his mission had been successful, and the dispute has since been settled amicably by mutual concessions embodied in a treaty defining the boundary, signed in November, 1903.

III.

The prolonged boundary contest between Chile and Argentina, which, happily, is now settled, will be found discussed in the sixth chapter. The dividing line between these two countries had been a subject of diplomatic negotiation for several years, when a protocol, signed in 1884, laid down the principal that the frontier should be fixed where "the highest peaks of the Andean ranges divide the watershed." This wording gave rise to misunderstanding. The Argentine representatives insisted that the line should run "from high peak to high peak," while the Chileans contended that the term "highest peak" referred only to the highest point in the watershed. The origin of the dispute lay in the fact that the assumption of the framers of the treaty was that the Andean chain ran north and south in one compact and massive range of mountains and not in parallel and distinct ridges, as happens to be the case. In view of the failure of the boundary commissioners to agree, the matter was referred to their respective governments, and in 1895 angry recriminations were indulged in by both nationalities. Chile was accused of taking an aggressive attitude, and the Argentine authorities became thoroughly alarmed at the turn of affairs.

The Buenos Ayres Cabinet finally decided to request the Argentine Congress to convene in secret session at which the Executive could explain the gravity of the complication. The explanation was that the Chilean Government threatened war unless its demands should be complied with, and Congress was further informed that the national administration was advised that Chile was preparing for war. It was pointed out that Argentina lacked reserves of arms and ammunition. The excitement in Congress was intense when these disclosures were made, and the outcome was an appropriation of fifty million gold dollars for defensive purposes. An arrangement was made however, by which boundary commissioners should endeavor to fix the dividing line, and the general impression was that for three years following the strained relations of 1895 the Argentine and Chilean representatives were on amicable terms. In July, 1898, however, a controversy arose in connection with the delimitation of the district known as the Puno de Atacama, and the commissioners announced that they could not agree. The Chilean representative claimed the whole of the district on the ground that it was occupied by Chileans. In itself the territory was of small value, some borax deposits and some deposits of minerals comprising the whole of the visible wealth, but the policy of Chile was not to give way in any direction where territorial expansion was concerned. The Argentine Government was convinced that it had right on its side, and in Buenos Ayres the territory had come to be regarded as Argentine, although there had been at one time some doubt as to whether Bolivia might not lay claim to a portion of it. A treaty, however, had been made with the Bolivian Government determining the partition of the Puno de Atacama, so far as the portion on the Atlantic slope of the Andes was concerned, and it was to the part allotted to Argentina by this agreement that Chile objected. So hot waxed the dispute that in August, 1898, the relations between Chile and Argentina became critical, and war appeared likely. Both sides pushed forward preparations for hostilities and toward the end of August an ultimatum was delivered by the Chilean Government demanding arbitration. The Argentine administration at first hesitated, but finally the demand was complied with and war was averted.

Mr. Akers recites the conditions which were at this time formulated. They were such that no further trouble ought to have been possible. The agreement provided for the submission of the Puno de Atacama dispute to a commission of arbitration presided over by the United States Minister at Buenos Ayres, Chile and Argentina, each having a representative on the board. At the same time, the two republics agreed to refer the southern frontier question to Queen Victoria. Notwithstanding these arrangements, an uneasy feeling still prevailed that hostilities might still break out, and neither State made any pretence of stopping military and naval preparations. Orders previously given for arms, ammunition and warships were not countermanded, and taxpayers on both sides of the Andes began to declaim strongly against the heavy expenditures thus entailed. The reply to such remonstrances invariably was that until the question of the boundary was settled it was necessary to maintain both Powers on a war footing. Thus the resources of Argentina and Chile continued to be strained, and public works were neglected in order that funds might be forthcoming to pay for guns and ships bought in Europe.

In 1899, however, the Puno de Atacama question was submitted to the commission above mentioned, and United States Minister Buchanan hit upon a new but effective plan of settlement. He subjected the documents to careful investigation, and marked upon a map the line which he considered just. This line he divided into sections. There was much opposition on both sides to the proposed line, for it cut off Argentine pretensions in some directions and Chilean in others; but Mr. Buchanan found a simple way out of the difficulty by suggesting that a separate vote should be taken on each section of the line. Where a section as proposed was adverse to Chile the Argentine commissioner voted for it, and Mr. Buchanan by siding with him produced a majority against the Chilean representative. Where the conditions were reversed, Mr. Buchanan concurred with the Chilean commissioner. In this way the work of adjustment was concluded in three days. The abstract justice of the plan was questioned, but in the end it was acknowledged that the matter had been treated from a common sense standpoint and both Governments accepted the award.

At the end of 1901 the arbitration tribunal in London practically finished the investigation of the southern boundary between Chile and Argentina, but the final accommodation of the dispute was not reached without considerable difficulty and excitement. In both Argentina and Chile the feeling gained ground that exception would be taken to the award and lead to the finding being rejected, thanks to the exaggerated value attached by rumor to the sections of territory claimed by each country. Thus the latent jealousy between the two nationalities was raised to fever heat, and the understanding arrived at in 1899 for restricting purchases of additional armaments was forgotten. Both governments renewed warlike preparations on so extensive a scale that throughout December, 1901, a rupture of diplomatic relations was daily anticipated. At this juncture representatives of the principal British interests in both republics appealed to the Foreign Office to use its influence to bring about an amicable solution of the impending quarrel. In response to this appeal energetic action was taken, and Sir Thomas Holdich was sent to inspect the disputed territory. He reached Buenos Ayres in February, 1902, Argentina and Chile being meanwhile warned that, if hostile preparations were not suspended, King Edward VII. would refuse to take any further part in the adjustment of the questions then under consideration by the arbitration tribunal in London. It was left to the British Ministers in Buenos Ayres and Santiago to impress on the representative governments the disastrous effect that his Majesty's withdrawal from the function of arbitrator would produce on Argentine and Chilean credit. In the end President Roca of Argentina, though he was obliged to yield to Chile on certain points, did so in a manner that left the Argentines small cause for complaint, and only made such concessions as were necessary to assure the use of British influence at Santiago to lower extreme Chilean pretensions and facilitate an equitable settlement. A treaty by which the parties bound themselves to restrict armaments was signed in June, 1902, and immediately ratified, and when, some months later, the award of the arbitration tribunal was made public it was accepted unreservedly by both governments.

IV.

In the chapter on Colombia the author recalls that in 1900 the question of the construction of the Panama Canal was taken up actively by the United States Government. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, which had been a stumbling block, was abrogated in 1901 and a new agreement reached with the British Government, by which the United States were to construct an interoceanic canal. The next step was the negotiation of treaties with Colombia, Nicaragua and Costa Rica for the right to build a waterway, and treaties to that effect were duly signed and subsequently ratified by Nicaragua and Costa Rica, but a similar convention was rejected by Colombia. It was understood that Colombia could have been propitiated by an increased money indemnity, but an intimation to that end savored too much of blackmail to meet with consideration in Washington. The wrongheadedness, therefore, of the Colombian Congress threatened to deprive the inhabitants of the Isthmus of Panama of the immense benefit anticipated from the construction of the canal and to transfer it to Nicaragua and Costa Rica. Here was the opportunity of the Liberal opposition, which had long been trying to overthrow by force on the Isthmus the Conservative Government headed by President Marroquin. For three years the revolutionary leaders had been preaching the doctrine that Bogota's resistance to a canal treaty would prove a death blow to Panama, and his preaching bore fruit when the treaty was rejected in 1903. The people of Panama, incited by the conspicuous opponents of the Marroquin Administration and by foreigners interested in the Isthmus, announced the secession of the State of Panama from the Colombian Confederation, and proclaimed it as an independent republic in November, 1903. Our author's comment on what followed is this: "The new State was recognised immediately by the United States Government and aid was lent by American warships to prevent the landing of a Colombian force to suppress the revolt. By this help the insurgents for the moment gained their object and obtained a territory within which they could not only establish an independent government, but also secure a place for the organization of future action against the Bogota Administration. As for the United States, they have doubtless removed an obstacle to the Panama route for the canal, but in the manner of doing so they have aroused hostility and suspicion throughout every section of Latin America."

V.

In the chapter on Venezuela the fact is recalled that a prospect of prosperity and progress was opened under Gen. Crespo between 1894 and 1898, but that his successor has been unable to maintain the improvement. For the last six or seven years Venezuela has been a prey to the intrigues of unscrupulous politicians and the attendant evils of ever recurring conspiracies against the authorities, in consequence of which commotions the economic situation is the reverse of satisfactory. Mr. Akers cites a clause in the Venezuelan Constitution which offers a premium on revolutionary movements and explains why the country is so frequently exposed to internal disturbance. There is, it seems, in the organic law a provision that insurgents taking up arms for political purposes shall be accorded belligerent rights and that all property of persons participating in political risings shall be exempt from confiscation. Under the circumstances, any ambitious citizen can join a rebellion with a light heart, knowing that he cannot be punished for treasonable acts and that his vested interests in land or other property are safe whether the cause he supports emerges victorious or defeated from the struggle.

The history of Venezuela during the last six years can be outlined in a few sentences. It is well known that Gen. Castro, who had been conspicuous in the revolt against President Andrade, was, after the success of the rebellion, elected Chief Magistrate, and, although various conspiracies were hatched against his authority, they were suppressed without much difficulty. The disturbances in 1898-99 had brought many financial and economic afflictions in their train, notably widespread distress after the restoration of peace. The fall in the price of coffee, the staple export from Venezuela, tended to accentuate the general depression. Under the conditions, it was not surprising that the Caracas Exchequer was without funds to meet the public obligations, and that the end of the nineteenth century found Venezuela in the position of a Government defaulting on both the internal and the external public debts. In February, 1902, Gen. Castro was again elected to the Presidency, and during his second term of office some interesting events occurred. Damage to the property of foreign residents had been extensive in the revolutionary outbreaks which had recently occurred, and claims for compensation were preferred against the Government. These demands receiving no consideration, even when they were pressed by the diplomatic representatives of foreign Powers, Great Britain, Germany and Italy determined to resort to force for the purpose of securing a just settlement for their subjects. Toward the end of 1902 the three Powers named established a blockade of La Guayra (the port of Caracas), and seized the Custom House, announcing that they would remain in possession until sufficient funds had been collected to satisfy their claims. Through the mediation of the United States a protocol was signed on Feb. 13, 1903, by which the parties agreed to refer the dispute to The Hague Tribunal, and the conditions of the compact were set forth in a treaty on May 7 of the same year. Under this agreement, not only the blockading Powers, but all other nationalities were entitled to claim reparation for damages suffered. On Feb. 22, 1904, the award of The Hague Tribunal was given, and, while admitting the claims of all creditor nationalities, it established a precedent in international law in that a preferential right to the 30 per cent. of the customs dues set aside was allowed to the three Powers which had taken active steps to enforce payment. Only after their claims were satisfied could other nations participate. It is obvious that this decision will tend to encourage the forcible coercion of weak debtor countries.

VI.

Five chapters of the book before us are allotted to the Argentine Republic. From almost every point of view it is unquestionably the most important, actually and prospectively, of the Spanish speaking commonwealths in South America, though whether, for the moment, it possesses more military and naval strength that does Chile may be doubted. The area of Argentina is 1,212,000 square miles, and the population, by the census of 1895, was 3,954,000. It is believed that at present there are at least 5,000,000 inhabitants. A fertile soil and kindly climate offer inducement for expansion to ten times the present number. It is certain that in twenty-six years the population was more than doubled. In 1858 the number of inhabitants was returned at 1,837,000, and by 1882 the figure had risen to 2,943,000. Between that date, however, and 1895 the census showed an increase of only 1,000,000. The economic crisis in 1890 was responsible for the exodus of many settlers who had come with the intention of making homes in the country. During the forty years following 1857 the number of immigrants was 1,567,000. Large additions have been made during the last seven years, and are now making. Mr. Akers testifies that the racial features of the Argentines are changing to a certain extent with the influx of foreign blood. Of foreign residents Italians are numerically the strongest. They are employed as laborers on railways, in agriculture, and wherever manual toil is needed. In retail trade also and in minor industrial undertakings they are conspicuous. Next in numerical strength is the Spanish colony, computed at 250,000. The Spanish immigrants are engaged in all kinds of industrial and commercial occupations, and form a thrifty, orderly and sound element in the population. It seems that after the Carlist wars many Basques emigrated to the River Plata, and a large proportion of them and their descendants are now rich and influential. The French colony comprises some 70,000 persons, principally engaged in wholesale or retail traffic or as employees and servants. There are likewise 25,000 Germans connected with commercial undertakings, while British subjects, although only 35,000 in number, play an important part in the community, as owners of property and representatives of invested capital. Our author's analysis of the Argentine population shows that only 70,000 persons are of non-Latin origin. The rest, so far as they are derived from European stock, inherit Latin blood through father or mother. An inspection of the recruiting grounds for the immigration to Argentina demonstrates that Latin traditions and customs are destined to prevail in the future throughout this section of South America. The result of the inflow from Southern Europe may be to leave the impress of Italian or French civilization more apparent in the Argentine character than the traits of the Spanish original stock, but none the less will the characteristic features of the people be Latin.

Mr. Akers does not fail to lay due stress on the extent of the change which during the last two decades has taken place in the conditions of industrial development in the Argentine Republic. In the year 1880 the exportation of produce was confined to wool, tallow, grease in various forms, and hides and horns; agricultural products barely sufficed to supply the home demand. Occasionally an abundant maize crop would leave a surplus for shipment abroad, but previous to 1880 wheat and flour had to be purchased in foreign countries to meet the deficit for home consumption. What agricultural industry there was was confined to the western section of the province of Buenos Ayres, the cost of transport in other districts being prohibitive. This state of things was quickly altered by the policy of railway extension initiated by Roca in 1881, and during the five subsequent years the development of agricultural industry was notable. Not only did production suffice for local wants, but a surplus became available for export to Brazil and Europe, and since 1885 such a steady expansion has taken place that in 1900 the total yield of wheat exceeded 100,000,000 bushels, of which 75,000,000 bushels was exported to foreign markets. What these figures mean will be appreciated when we recall that the wheat crop of the United States in the year named was only 522,000,000 bushels. We add that the cultivation of maize and linseed has also been extended, so that agricultural products, which formed so small a proportion of Argentina's national wealth twenty years ago, are now valuable staples of export.

Another of the principal sources of Argentine prosperity is sheep farming. The province of Buenos Ayres is the main centre of the industry. Within its boundaries alone the flocks contain 70,000,000 head. Entre Rios, Cordoba, the tracts of the Pampa Central, and those adjoining the Rio Negro, and parts of Patagonia also, possess lands adapted to sheep, some twenty million head being scattered over these districts. Our author tells us that the conditions of Argentine sheep farming have undergone marked changes during the last twenty years. Formerly wool was the only product to which the sheep farmer paid attention, the tallow and skins exported being only by-products. A radical improvement, however, was made in the quality of the stock between 1880 and 1890, and in the year last named the expediency of exporting mutton began to occupy public attention. Thenceforth, the exportation of frozen mutton rapidly increased.

An accurate return of the number of horned cattle in Argentina has not been compiled, but the estimate of twenty-five millions is accepted in the Akers book.

This calculation is based on the number of hides exported and the relative number of animals shipped abroad or slaughtered for the *Saladeros*, frozen meat and butchering establishments. That the increase in the herds has been large of late years has been proved by the additional areas of lands recently stocked. A great expanse of natural pasturage is still unoccupied, and the grazing capacity of the settled districts has been increased by the sowing of alfalfa. In Argentina, previously to 1880, value was placed upon horned cattle only in connection with the *Saladero* establishments, where the meat was converted into *tasajo* (jerked beef), or for the hides and horns. The idea of selling Argentine beef in Europe had not yet penetrated to the River Plate, but between 1880 and 1885 Durham and Hereford bulls were imported, and the breed of cattle was thus signally improved. Soon thereafter owners of herds began to think seriously of exporting Argentine cattle for European consumption. In 1889 the first trial shipment of live cattle to Europe was made, but the result was not encouraging, as the animals had not been well selected. The Argentine exporters, however, persisted in their attempt to place live stock in foreign markets, and cargo after cargo was despatched until in 1893 the trade became established. From 1895 to 1900 the annual export of beeves exceeded 120,000 animals, valued at £2,000,000.

Mr. Akers knows of no element in the economic situation of Argentina that deserves greater attention than primary and secondary education. As a matter of fact, however, no subject arouses less general interest. During the administration, indeed, of President Sarmiento, from 1868 to 1874, the initiative of the Executive was conducive to a liberal policy in regard to public instruction. Many grants in aid of educational establishments, especially primary schools, were made by the national administration, and teachers were imported to inculcate advanced methods. The provincial and municipal authorities also were encouraged to established an official system, and for a time it seemed that Sarmiento's ideas were firmly rooted in the country. Subsequent Presidents however showed no interest in public education, and gradually the movement started by Sarmiento died away. Occasionally some agitation is set afoot for more adequate schools, but hitherto only small support has been accorded to such efforts.

The proposal of the Minister of Public Instruction in 1900 to give a more practical turn to the educational course by suppressing certain establishments for secondary education, in order to substitute technical schools, was rejected by the Argentine Congress. Our author leads us to infer that, as things are now, few Argentines are thoroughly educated. "A smattering of many subjects is taught; sound knowledge of any one is the exception. It is not that pupils are deficient in intelligence, but rather that teachers are lacking in experience and ability. Nor can any other result be expected under existing circumstances. The payment of school officials is inadequate, and frequently salaries are months in arrears, while lack of discipline in primary, secondary and higher education is conspicuous. Provisions for the orderly exercise of authority in colleges and schools are most defective. Not long ago regulations were made at the University of Buenos Ayres for the purpose of restricting the practice of smoking. By way of protest against these the whole body of students refused to attend any classes.

VII.

The five chapters assigned to Brazil contain a great deal of needed information in regard to that country, which is, of the American Commonwealth next to the United States, is the largest in area and in population. Brazil, which comprises 3,209,000 square miles, was credited by the census of 1890 with a total population of 14,333,000. The inhabitants were thus classified: whites, 5,000,000; half breeds, of Indian, negro and white blood, 6,500,000; Indians, 400,000 and negroes, 3,500,000. There is evidently a mistake in one or the other of these computations, for the aggregate of the classified population is 15,400,000. The larger figure approaches much more nearly the estimate made this year, which was 18,000,000. The whites are made up of descendants of Portuguese settlers, of foreign immigrants from Portugal, Italy and Germany and their descendants, and of a few South Americans from other parts of the continent. It seems that at present the color line between them and negroes is not sharply drawn, in spite of the fact that slavery existed up to 1887. Into Brazil, as well as Argentina, there has been for the last fifteen years a steady flow of immigration from Italy. Even before the abolition of slavery the coffee planters and other employers of labor had awakened to the fact that immigration must be encouraged if the great producing industries were to be maintained. The result of their representations was that the imperial authorities organized a propaganda in Europe for the purpose of demonstrating the advantages offered by Brazil for settlement. After the suppression of slavery in 1887, the demand for laborers increased rapidly, and both Italians and Portuguese came in large numbers. Good wages were earned by the immigrants, and the heavily taxed lower classes in Italy were eager to migrate to the coffee plantations of Sao Paulo and Minas Geraes. The Portuguese, for their part, prefer the cities, and gain a livelihood as servants, as employees in shops, as boatmen and as artisans. The Italians principally benefited by the free passages to Brazil accorded by the Government, so that by 1892 the number of them in the country was reported by the Italian Legation at Rio Janeiro to exceed one million. How far these incomers will become assimilated to the native Brasilians our author deems it not yet possible to say. At present the majority remit their wages to their homes in Italy, do not intermarry largely with their Portuguese-speaking neighbors, and seldom form binding social ties. Occasionally they buy plots of land, and in such instances become fixed residents of Brazil; but cases of the kind are not common.

The book before us does not fail to recognize the important part which the German settlements in the southern section of the country seem destined to play in Brazil's national life. At Porto Alegre and elsewhere in the province of Rio Grande do Sul the number of German residents exceeds 50,000, and the provinces of Santa Catharina and Parana also contain colonies which are all strong enough to retain their own manners and traditions, and show thus far little inclination to discard them. During the revolutionary period (1893-95) these settlers held aloof from the struggle between the revolutionists and the reactionists, and maintained the strictest neutrality. Even to local politics they evinced indifference. So profound was this apathy that in the larger German settlements, armed guards were maintained by the residents for their protection against marauding attempts on their property, and neither Government nor revolutionary troops were permitted to enter their territory. The Germans in Brazil are agriculturists and cattle owners, and, although few among them have acquired wealth, most are in a fairly prosperous condition. Those German colonies, however, which were formed by Dom Pedro II. at Petropolis, Novo Fribugo and in neighboring districts, occupy land which is poor and broken by rugged mountain ranges. Consequently, they only make a bare living by growing vegetables, fruit and other minor agricultural products, and their progress is slow compared to that of their fellow countrymen in Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina. So far as the Portuguese immigrants are concerned, Mr. Akers says that they become so intimately associated with Brazilians as practically to lose their national identity. They intermarry with their Brazilian neighbors, and express no intention of returning to Europe, except for an occasional visit. Brazil becomes their home, and their children grow up with Brazilian ideas of life. Nevertheless, the number of Portuguese immigrants who take out naturalization papers is not great. This disinclination to be naturalised is due partly to apathy, and partly to the fact that, by retaining their nationality, they are exempt from military service, an exemption they do not care to forego, unless for direct compensation in the shape of official employment. As a rule, they are thrifty and industrious, and form a valuable addition to the labor supply.

We observe, finally, that in Brazil, as in Argentina, the dominant note of the national character comes from the Latin stock which colonised South America. Circumstances have modified Brazilian ideas in many respects, but not to the extent of altering the fundamental principles underlying and governing action and lines of thought. Our author is convinced that in order to permit a satisfactory evolution of Brazilian character, education must be placed on a different footing from that which it occupies at present. Under the existing system it is not compulsory. Public instruction, so far as the primary and secondary stages are concerned, is under the control of provincial and municipal authorities, over whom the federal administration exercises no jurisdiction. The higher education, on the other hand, is in the hands of the central government. The establishments devoted to this end comprise two medical schools, four law colleges, four military schools, one naval school and a school of mines. Their aggregate number of students is 2,000. There is also a Lyceum of Arts and Trades, with accommodation for 2,500 pupils, and five special schools, with facilities for 600 students. The inadequacy of the educational system, viewed as a whole, was demonstrated in 1889, when the official returns showed only 7,500 public and private schools, attended by 300,000 pupils. In the following year no fewer than 8,365,000 persons were returned as unable to read or write, and since then the number of illiterates has increased. Under such circumstances it is not surprising that the majority of the inhabitants are wrapped in superstition and make no advance toward a higher civilization.

Economic progress in Brazil has been retarded by the financial difficulties of the Federal Government, resulting from the reckless waste of the national resources in order to combat revolutionary outbreaks and to satisfy the demands of the corrupt clique which surrounded the Presidency from 1890 to 1894. The depreciation of the currency, due to the mismanagement of the national finances, not only ruined many families that possessed fixed sources of income, but reduced the earnings of employees and laborers. To the effect of the reduced purchasing power of the inconvertible notes was added the burden of heavy extra taxation. Hence widespread poverty among all classes of Brazilians and a temporary check of economic evolution. An auspicious reaction has begun, but has not yet counterbalanced the result of former errors. The lack of adequate means of communication is still felt severely in Brazil, for the length of railways open for public service is only 9,000 miles, though the country is only 300,000 square miles smaller than the United States. The limited facilities for transport hinder development in every direction, and to this cause is due the fact that the interior of the country remains to this day unpopulated and almost unknown.

VIII.

In his thirty-fourth and final chapter the author sums up the conclusions to which he has been led by his long residence in South America. Glancing back over the half century covered by this volume the historian sees bloodshed everywhere, no matter whether the country under review is Argentina, Brazil, Uruguay or Paraguay. The first three are torn and bleeding from internal dissensions, while Paraguay still mourns for the victims in her unequal struggle against invaders vastly superior in numbers and resources. Our author hesitates to assert that South America, viewed as a whole, has yet definitely emerged from a state of things that in the course of the last fifty years, out-darkened the worst epochs of the Middle Ages in the Old World. The question raised by investigation into the affairs of the South American republics is whether most of them have much, if at all, profited by the outcome of their hard fought battle for independence.

It is not for a moment disputed in these pages that "the feeling against a continuance of Spanish dominion had many sound reasons to justify its existence; but the colonists were Spaniards after they gained their freedom, and Spanish character was then, and is now, the dominant factor in their national life. It is to this fact that political turmoil, revolution, civil war and other calamities can be traced. For this reason, even the region of the River Plate has made such tardy economic progress, in spite of magnificent natural advantages." Mr. Akers sees some signs, however, that the influence of the Spanish character is slowly losing its baneful grip upon the continent. After a century of unrest, the truth is being by degrees brought home to the South American peoples that there is something more satisfactory than a condition of affairs where the hand of every man is against his neighbor. "The old spirit is not yet eliminated; but it is nearing its end, and to Argentina belongs the credit of having prepared its funeral dirge. The lesson that freedom does not mean anarchy has taken long to learn, but every year it is better understood." Our author's observations have convinced him that, if these South American republics would suppress their military establishments and rid themselves of the armaments they have collected, tranquillity would be insured. The possession of great stores of war materials is a temptation to try conclusions with one's neighbors. We are assured, however, that, even in this respect, improvement is noticeable. There is less disposition nowadays in South America to rush into a quarrel than there used to be. All that is needed to consolidate peace is the adequate administration of justice throughout these commonwealths, protection for civil rights and a more liberal system of public education. No great statesmanship, no extraordinary effort, no huge expenditure of money is necessary to achieve these results. Honest administrations, supported by the good will of the inhabitants, is all that is required to place these countries on a sound basis.

Our author closes by urging his European readers to pay close attention to River Plata affairs, and especially to the relations of Brazil and Argentina. Two substantial reasons are given for watching developments in these republics. The first is that the temperate regions of South America provide an outlet for the surplus population of Italy, Spain, Portugal and France. The Anglo-Saxon has a choice of British colonies to which to emigrate, and there also the German finds conditions suited to his tastes. The United States provide a further field for the nationalities belonging to the Teutonic stock. In the case of the Latin peoples the situation is different. It is preeminently in South America that the surroundings accord with their traditional customs. For the Spaniard and the Portuguese there is the incentive of the identity of language, while for the Italian the linguistic difference is easily overcome. The River Plata republics are so essentially Latin in their character that they form the natural bourne for the inhabitants of Europe's Latin countries who may be forced to leave their homes in consequence of increasing competition in the struggle for existence. To the disinherited of Europe the commonwealths of Argentina, Uruguay and southern Brazil are havens of refuge. Under improved economic conditions they are certain to become far more attractive than they now are to the inhabitants of overcrowded European countries.

The second and decisive reason assigned by Mr. Akers for watching with the keenest interest the progress of the River Plata countries and Brazil, is that South America is rapidly taking rank as one of the principal purveyors of food for European markets. Wheat, maize, coffee, beef and mutton are received in constantly increasing quantities from this quarter, and a sudden cessation of supplies would entail serious consequences to those countries which have become accustomed to depend upon the shipment of cereals, coffee and meat from Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. It is not, however, with the possibility of decrease, but with the probability of a substantial increase, of the supply of food staples that Europe is most concerned. Even now Argentina and Uruguay export on an average to Europe 100,000,000 bushels of wheat and 50,000,000 bushels of maize annually. This amount will be trebled in the next decade, and that means cheap breadstuffs for Europe.

Before we take leave of this useful book we should mention that the author does not expect that the opening of the Panama Canal will exercise any great influence on the trade of South America in the immediate future. No doubt the artificial waterway will lead to cheaper transport, and this will encourage increased production on the western coast of the South American continent; but the reduction in cost will not be sufficient at first to swell the volume of trade to any great extent. As regards passenger traffic, the canal will be a distinct gain, but the influence of more frequent communication with the United States and Europe is unlikely to show any very marked results during the present generation.

M. W H.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE.

A Case in Which It Would Have Told Against an Innocent Man.

From the Nashville American.

"Several years ago I took a late train from Boston to New York," said a man in business in Kansas City. "In the morning I was awakened earlier than usual by the porter, who said that a robbery had been committed on the sleeper during the night and that all the passengers would have to get up. Some one had taken six one-hundred-dollar bills from the clothing of a gentleman who occupied a berth in the middle of the car. Every section had been thoroughly searched before he left Boston, and as the train had been almost constantly in motion it seemed certain that the person who had committed the theft was still on the car.

"The porter said no one had been aboard but the passengers, and that none of them had left. It was proposed to search everybody. A man who had a berth directly opposite from the one who had been robbed objected. He told his name and said any one might easily find that he was a man of good reputation. In the meantime some officers boarded the car and after a little swearing got the money from the colored porter, who was the guilty one.

"Then the passenger who had refused to be searched asked the officers to examine his pockets. This seemed strange, but he insisted. In an inside pocket they found six one hundred-dollar bills. It was merely a coincidence that he should have the same amount of money as the other passenger had lost, and in exactly the same denominations, but he knew that under the circumstances he could hardly establish his innocence. How was that for a case of circumstantial evidence?"